



Understanding the promoter effect of Cu and Cs over highly effective β - Mo_2C catalysts for the reverse water-gas shift reaction

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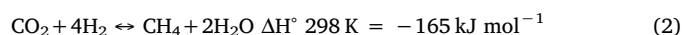
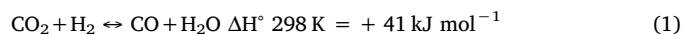
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ABSTRACT

Mo_2C is an effective catalyst for chemical CO_2 upgrading via reverse water-gas shift (RWGS). In this work, we demonstrate that the activity and selectivity of this system can be boosted by the addition of promoters such as Cu and Cs. The addition of Cu incorporates extra active sites such as Cu^+ and Cu^0 which are essential for the reaction. Cs is an underexplored dopant whose marked electropositive character generates electronic perturbations on the catalyst's surface leading to enhanced catalytic performance. Also, the Cs-doped catalyst seems to be *in-situ* activated due to a re-carburization phenomenon which results in fairly stable catalysts for continuous operations. Overall, this work showcases a strategy to design highly efficient catalysts based on promoted β - Mo_2C for CO_2 recycling via RWGS.

1. Introduction

The excessive concentration of carbon dioxide (CO_2) in the atmosphere has been considered as one of the critical reasons for climate change and ocean acidification [1,2]. Consequently, capturing CO_2 and converting it into fuels and commodity chemicals have attracted numerous attentions. Reverse water-gas shift (RWGS) reaction (Eq. (1)) is a desired route for CO_2 utilization because the product of this reaction (syngas) can be used directly as feedstock in the Fischer-Tropsch process and further convert into fuels and chemicals.



However, some factors such as high stability and low reactivity of CO_2 have to be considered in the chemical process [3]. Normally, a huge amount of heat is needed to produce CO. Besides, the reaction has a tendency to produce parallel unwanted products (Eq. (2)). In order to reduce the required energy and improve the selectivity of the RWGS reaction, exploring highly active, selective and stable catalysts is of significant demand. It is widely accepted that there are two main mechanisms for CO formation from RWGS reaction. One is a redox mechanism and the other is the formate decomposition mechanism. The catalysts used in RWGS reaction need to exhibit dual function in both these two mechanisms [4]. Typical RWGS catalysts consist of both a

well dispersed active metal and metal-oxide support which can participate in the reaction [4,5]. Catalysts with such formulation have been studied extensively, such as Ni-CeO₂ [5], Cu-Al₂O₃ [6] and Pt/Al₂O₃ [7].

For the supports, Transition Metal Carbides (TMCs) seem to be appealing alternative supports because of their properties similar to precious metals. In addition, they are excellent substrates to disperse metallic particles [8,9]. In particular, previous studies have demonstrated that TMCs display high activity in olefin isomerization [10], WGS [11] and CO hydrogenation [12]. Among the available TMCs materials, molybdenum carbide (Mo_2C) was found to be itself (acting as an active phase) capable of activating the RWGS reaction via dissociating H_2 and scissoring C=O bond. Considering these properties and its low cost, Mo_2C has become one of the most promising support/active phase which can be employed in RWGS reaction.

Normally, molybdenum carbide has a variety of crystal structures, but it is commonly seen in two types, β - MoC_y ($y = 0.5$) with a hexagonal closed packed structure and α - MoC_{1-x} ($x < 0.5$) with a face-centered cubic (fcc) structure [13,14]. Both of these two types are active for the CO_2 hydrogenation. However, β - Mo_2C displays higher conversion of CO_2 since the Mo/C ratio of β - Mo_2C is higher than α - MoC_{1-x} . DFT calculation shows that the lower value the Mo/C ratio, the less C–O bonds are cleaved (when the ratio is equal to one, the MoC surface shows only chemisorption of CO_2 molecule without cleavage of the C–O bonds). Thermal carburization of hexagonal molybdenum

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carbide has been typically used to synthesize α -MoC_{1-x} and β -Mo₂C. In this process, methane is employed as carbon source and it seems that the formation of α -MoC_{1-x} requires higher methane concentration. Besides, after 20 h stability test in RWGS reaction at 600 °C, the α -MoC_{1-x} phase changes to β -phase indicating that the β -Mo₂C is more stable under the RWGS reaction conditions [15]. Seen from this perspective, β -Mo₂C is the right choice to conduct further modifications and improve its performance.

For the active phase, precious metals have been extensively studied due to its high activity such as Pt/CeO₂ [16], however, their elevated cost hinders the application for these materials. In order to overcome this problem, many studies have been carried out aiming to develop highly efficient and economically viable catalyst for the RWGS reaction. Cu-based catalysts have been widely used in this regard due to their high activity and selectivity. Previous studies demonstrate that Cu is a crucial active phase for the CO₂ hydrogenation in Cu-ZnO system when it is supported in a suitable oxide, such as CeO₂, Al₂O₃ or CrO₂. [17]. However, traditional Cu-based oxides catalysts suffer for poor stability due to the oxidation of the metallic Cu on the catalyst's surface [6] and the aggregation of the copper particles at high temperature [18]. In order to resolve this issue, Zhang et al. have used Mo₂C instead of oxides as the support material of the catalyst. This method effectively prevented high-temperature sintering on the surface of Cu-based catalyst since Mo₂C can considerably disperse and anchor the Cu particles over the substrate [19].

Alkali metals are also important promoters which can enhance CO₂ adsorption [20]. Among these alkali metals, Potassium and Rubidium are common promoters for producing alcohol in CO hydrogenation reactions [21,22]. Porosoff et al. synthesized a new potassium-promoted molybdenum carbide which is supported on γ -Al₂O₃ (K-Mo₂C/ γ -Al₂O₃). Potassium helped Mo maintain in reduced phases that act as active sites in K-Mo₂C/ γ -Al₂O₃. Since reduced Mo phases are significant for high selectivity towards CO and high catalyst stability, this catalyst exhibited high levels of activity in the RWGS reaction [23]. Comparing to potassium, studies dealing with Caesium are scarce despite its potential applicability as RWGS promoter [24]. Indeed, Caesium has bigger ionic radius than K and Na and therefore it is more prone to donate electrons creating electronic interactions that could favour the CO₂ hydrogenation process [23].

Under these premises, we have developed a series of novel multi-component Cs-doped catalysts (Cs-Mo₂C, Cu-Cs-Mo₂C) for CO₂ conversion via RWGS reaction. The catalytic performance and the physicochemical properties of these two catalysts have been compared to reference materials (Cu-Mo₂C, β -Mo₂C and a commercial Mo₂C) and the main reasons for their excellent performance on the RWGS are carefully addressed.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Catalyst preparation

The β -Mo₂C catalyst was prepared by a TPC procedure described in the literature [19]. Ammonium paramolybdate ((NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·4H₂O, Sigma-Aldrich) was calcined to 500 °C at a heating rate of 5 °C/min and hold for 4 h to obtain MoO₃. This oxide precursor was sieved to retain particles with sizes between 200–400 μ m. The powder was heated from room temperature (RT) to 300 °C at a heating rate of 5 °C/min under an atmosphere of 20% CH₄ and 80% H₂ and then the temperature was increased from 300 °C to 700 °C at a rate of 2 °C/min. The sample was treated in the above atmosphere at 700 °C for 2 h and then cooled to room temperature.

The oxide precursor of the Cs-Mo₂C catalyst was synthesized using a co-precipitation method. Ammonium paramolybdate ((NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·4H₂O, Sigma-Aldrich) was mixed with Cs₂CO₃ (Sigma-Aldrich) in distilled water (50 ml) at room temperature. The aqueous solution was stirred for 4 h and evaporated using a rotary evaporator at

75 °C, and dried at 110 °C overnight. Then the white powder was calcined at 500 °C for 4 h to obtain the Cs-MoO₃ precursor. After that, the same TPC procedure addressed above was used to prepare Cs-Mo₂C.

The same method was used for the synthesis of Cu-Mo₂C or Cu-Cs-Mo₂C catalyst using Cu(NO₃)₂ or Cu(NO₃)₂/Cs₂CO₃. For Cs-Mo₂C and Cu-Mo₂C, the content of the promoter elements was calculated to be 1 wt%. For Cu-Cs-Mo₂C, each content of the two elements was fixed at 1 wt%.

2.2. Catalyst characterization

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, K-ALPHA, Thermo Scientific) was used to analyse the surface chemistry of the prepared materials. All spectra were collected using Al-K radiation (1486.6 eV), monochromatized by a twin crystal monochromator, yielding a focused X-ray spot (elliptical in shape with a major axis length of 400 μ m) at 3 mA \times 12 kV. The alpha hemispherical analyser was operated in the constant energy mode with survey scan pass energies of 200 eV to measure the whole energy band and 50 eV in a narrow scan to selectively measure the particular elements. XPS depth profiles were obtained by sputtering the specimen with a 1 k eV Ar⁺ ion beam. XPS data were analysed with Advantage software. A smart background function was used to approximate the experimental backgrounds and surface elemental composition were calculated from background-subtracted peak areas. Charge compensation was achieved with the system flood gun that provides low energy electrons and low energy argon ions from a single source.

The crystal structures of the samples were characterized by X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) analysis with an X'Pert Pro PANalytical at room temperature using Cu-K α (40 mA, 45 kV) over a 2 theta range of 10°–90°. X'PertHighscore Plus[®] was used to calculate the crystal sizes of the studied samples.

The textural characterization: The textural characterization of the catalysts was carried out by N₂ adsorption at –196 °C with an AUTO-SORB-6 equipment (QUANTACHROME INSTRUMENTS). Samples were previously outgassed at 250 °C for 4 h.

2.3. Catalytic behaviour

The RWGS reactions were performed in a vertical continuous fixed bed reactor. The reactor was a 7 mm inner diameter quartz tube in which 0.25 g of catalyst (200–400 nm) was loaded on the quartz wool in the middle of the reactor. The sample was heated in the N₂ condition from room temperature to 400 °C. Then, the catalyst was exposed to the feed gas mixture of H₂:CO₂ = 4:1 at a constant weight hourly space velocity (WHSV) of 12,000 ml g^{–1} h^{–1}. For all the studied catalysts, tests were evaluated within a temperature range of 400 to 750 °C. At each temperature, the gas products were analysed after 10 min of steady-state reaction. An ABB AO2020 Advanced Optima Process Gas Analyser was used for the on-line analysis of reactants and products. In order to explore the effects of different H₂:CO₂ ratios on the performance of studied catalysts, reactions were tested at the same temperature and space velocity with a different H₂:CO₂ ratio of 4:1, 2:1 and 1:1. Stability tests were measured at a space velocity of 12,000 g^{–1} h^{–1} with a H₂:CO₂ ratio of 4:1 at 550 °C for 50 h.

Performance of the catalysts was measured in terms of CO₂ conversion (Eq. (3)), CO selectivity (Eq. (4)) and CH₄ selectivity (Eq. (5)). The error in CO₂ conversion and CO/CH₄ selectivity for all the experiments was within \pm 0.5%, as in previous work using this reaction set-up [24].

$$\text{CO}_2 \text{ conversion (\%)} = ([\text{CO}_2]_{\text{In}} - [\text{CO}_2]_{\text{Out}}) / ([\text{CO}_2]_{\text{In}}) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

$$\text{CO selectivity (\%)} = ([\text{CO}]_{\text{Out}}) / ([\text{CO}_2]_{\text{In}} - [\text{CO}_2]_{\text{Out}}) \times 100 \quad (4)$$

$$\text{CH}_4 \text{ selectivity (\%)} = ([\text{CH}_4]_{\text{Out}}) / ([\text{CO}_2]_{\text{In}} - [\text{CO}_2]_{\text{Out}}) \times 100 \quad (5)$$

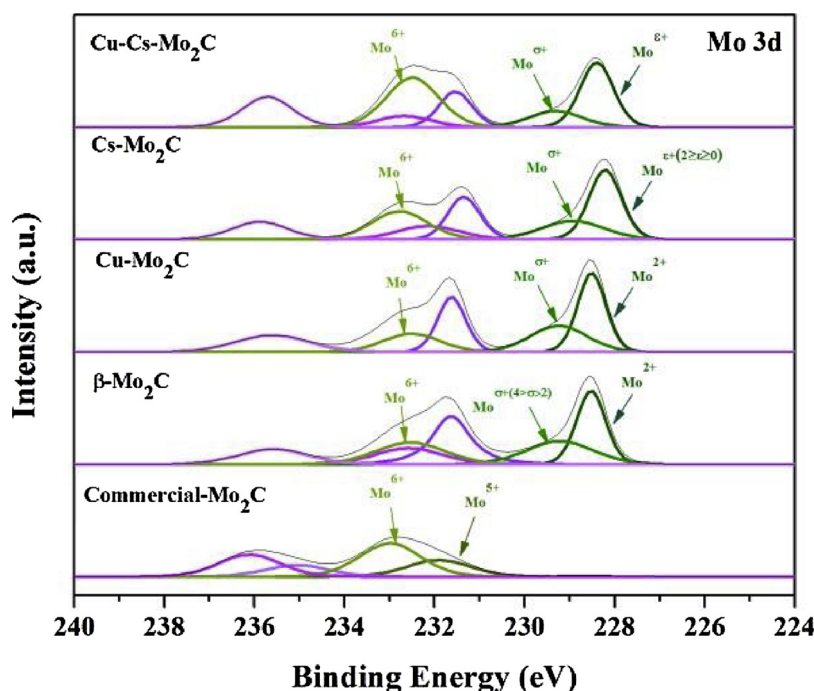


Fig. 1. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) Mo 3d spectra and the deconvoluted peaks of the β -Mo₂C, Cu-Mo₂C, Cs-Mo₂C, Cu-Cs-Mo₂C and commercial Mo₂C.

3. Result and discussion

3.1. Characterisation

3.1.1. XPS analysis

To investigate the electronic structures of all these five molybdenum carbides samples, Mo 3d XPS spectra were collected (Fig. 1 and Table 1). Mo 3d spectra are split into 3d_{5/2} and 3d_{3/2} peaks due to the spin-orbital coupling effect [25]. For the β -Mo₂C and Cu-Mo₂C catalysts, it is found that there are three species on molybdenum carbide surface. Doublets with Mo 3d_{5/2} peaks at 232.6 eV \pm 0.2 eV are characteristic of Mo⁶⁺ which suggests the presence of single crystal MoO₃(010) [26–28]. The one with Mo 3d_{5/2} binding energy of 228.5 \pm 0.1 eV is attributed to Mo²⁺ species involved in Mo-C bond [26,29–31] and another one with 3d_{5/2} binding energy of 229.3 \pm 0.1 eV is identified as Mo ^{σ +} (where σ is the states between II and IV). Both Mo ^{σ +} and Mo⁶⁺ species are involved in Mo-O and Mo-O-C bonds as previously reported elsewhere [30,32,33].

Similar Mo 3d XPS spectra are observed for the Cs containing samples, including Cs-Mo₂C and Cu-Cs-Mo₂C. However, it should be noticed that the binding energy of the low valence state shifted to a lower binding energy when Cs is added as a dopant to molybdenum carbide, an effect observed for both Cu-Cs-Mo₂C and Cs-Mo₂C samples. The peaks located at 228.2 eV and 228.4 eV are assigned to Mo ^{ϵ +} (0 $\leq \epsilon \leq 2$) since the binding energy of the species with these oxidation states are between 227.6 eV (Mo⁰) [29,34] and 228.5 eV (Mo²⁺). This phenomenon is in accordance with XRD result which reveals

strongly crystallized metallic Mo phase in the Cs-Mo₂C sample and in a lower extent, in the Cu-Cs-Mo₂C samples (Fig. 4). Interestingly, as shown in Table 1, Mo ^{σ +} (2 < σ < 4) is shifted to lower binding energy in Cs-Mo₂C in comparison to the other three catalysts. None of these catalysts was reduced or passivated prior to the XPS, but still, reduced metallic Mo appeared in the Cs containing samples. This can be explained as follows: Cs is an excellent electron donor with very low electronegativity. Therefore, in the Cs-Mo₂C sample, the electrons of Cs in Cs-Mo bonds are intensely attracted by Mo ions, leading to an increment of the electron charge density (ECD) around the Mo²⁺. Hence the binding energies of Mo are shifted and the sample acquires a certain degree of metallic character. An analogous result in terms of the negative shift of Mo phase binding energy was recently reported when alkali metals such as K⁺ was added to the Mo₂C/ γ -Al₂O₃ based catalyst. According to the Bader charge analysis, potassium transferred almost one electron (Bader charge = 0.82e) to the surface of Mo₂C [23].

In the commercial Mo₂C catalyst, only the characteristic binding energies of Mo⁵⁺ 3d_{5/2} (231.9 eV) [29] and Mo⁶⁺ 3d_{5/2} (232.98 eV) were detected, which should respectively correspond to Mo₂O₅ and MoO₃ phases, indicating that commercial Mo₂C catalyst surface is completely oxidized and it is much difficult to be reduced than the other four catalysts.

The C 1s and O 1s spectra for Mo₂C-based catalysts are also shown in Fig. 2. For the C 1s spectra (Fig. 2(A)), peaks at 283.5 \pm 0.1 eV are assigned to carbidic carbons in Mo₂C [35]. It can be seen that no carbidic carbon was detected on the surface of the commercial Mo₂C catalyst, which is in accordance with Mo XPS spectra, indicating that

Table 1

Mo 3d_{5/2} binding energies of all samples.

Sample	Mo 3d _{5/2} (eV)					Cu 2p _{3/2}			Cs 2d _{5/2}	Cu/Mo (at/at)	Cs/Mo (at/at)
	Mo ^{ϵ+} (0 $\leq \epsilon \leq 2$)	Mo ²⁺	Mo ^{σ+} (2 < σ < 4)	Mo ⁵⁺	Mo ⁶⁺	Cu ⁰	Cu(OH) ₂	CuO	Cs ¹⁺		
Commercial Mo ₂ C	–	–	–	231.9	233.0	–	–	–	–		
β -Mo ₂ C	–	228.5	229.2	–	232.5	–	–	–	–		
Cu-Mo ₂ C	–	228.5	229.2	–	232.5	932.3	935.0	–	–	0.048	
Cs-Mo ₂ C	228.2	–	228.9	–	232.8	–	–	–	724.4		0.215
Cu-Cs-Mo ₂ C	228.4	–	229.3	–	232.5	932.1	934.9	941.7(944.1)	724.1	0.131	0.115

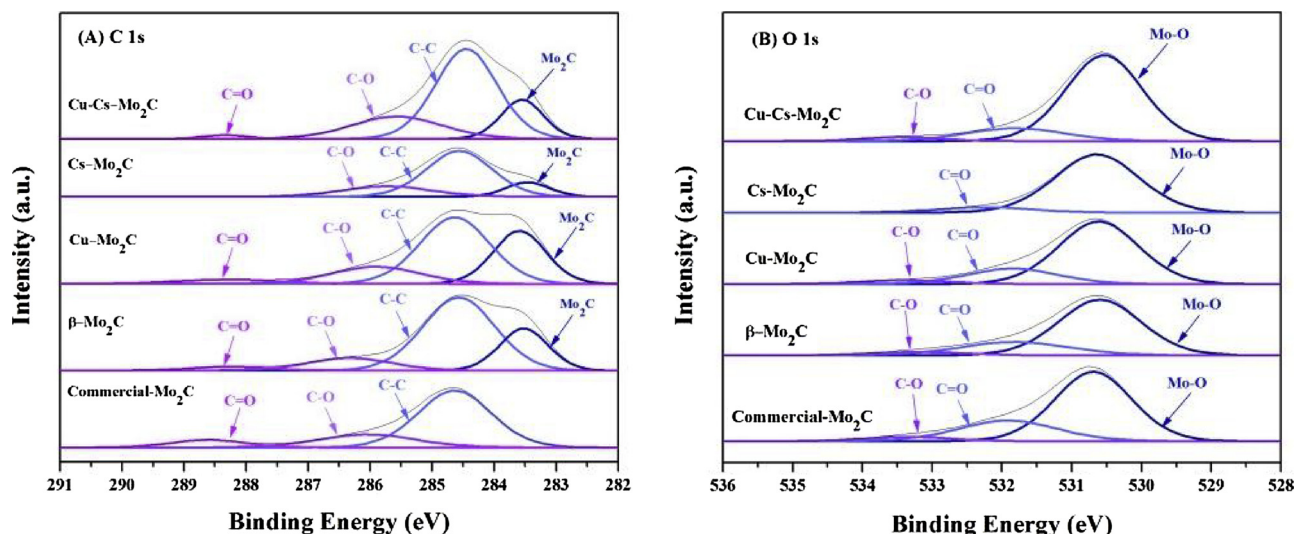


Fig. 2. (A) C 1s and (B) O 1s XPS spectra of all catalysts.

the Mo₂C on the surface of catalyst was completely oxidized. The major peaks at 284.6 ± 0.1 eV are identified as the surface C–C bonds belonging to graphitic carbon [28,34]. The peaks at 286 ± 0.6 eV and 288.4 ± 0.4 eV are assigned to species containing C–O and C=O bonds, respectively. These can be associated with carbonates and formates on the catalyst surface due to traces of contamination [32,36,37].

As for the O 1s spectra, two different species are present on the surface of the Mo₂C-base catalyst. The binding energy of O 1s located at 530.7 ± 0.1 eV is assigned to the oxygen in MoO_x formulations. Peaks at 532 ± 0.2 eV are indicative of strongly bound O = C and peaks at 533.4 ± 0.1 eV are ascribed to O–C [37].

The surface chemical state of Cu and Cs was also analysed (Fig. 3). Cu 2p_{3/2} XPS spectra for the Cu-containing samples show that the peaks at 932.2 ± 0.1 eV dominate the spectrum, which should be assigned to Cu¹⁺ (Cu₂O) and Cu⁰ (metallic Cu). It is difficult to distinguish these two valence state in XPS since Cu⁰ (932.3 ± 0.1 eV) present a similar binding energy to that of Cu₂O (932.4 ± 0.2 eV) [38,39]. Peaks at 934.9 ± 0.1 eV are attributed to Cu²⁺ species in Cu(OH)₂ [40]. For the Cs 3d spectra, the binding energy of Cs 3d_{5/2} located at 724.2 ± 0.2 eV is univocally identified as Cs⁺ [41].

For Cu-Mo₂C, Cu⁺ and metallic Cu are the main Cu species on the surface of catalysts. However, with the addition of Cs to the Cu-Mo₂C, two peaks located at 941.66 eV and 944.13 eV were detected, indicating that the copper species may interact with molybdenum carbide and partially evolve from Cu⁰ to Cu⁺ to Cu²⁺ (CuO) [40,42]. In parallel and when compared to Cs-Mo₂C, the binding energy of Cs 3d_{5/2} in Cu-Cs-Mo₂C shifted from 724.4 eV to 724.1 eV. This once again reflects the electronic interactions in our multicomponent catalysts indicating an electronic transfer from Cu⁰ and Cu⁺ to Mo with caesium acting as a bridge, to facilitate electronic transfers.

Since the different Cu species have an important impact on the catalytic performance and it is hard to distinguish between Cu⁺ and Cu⁰ in a typical XPS experiment, Cu LMM Auger electron spectroscopy (AES) was collected to differentiate these two species more precisely. As shown in Fig. 3(C) and (D), AES spectra exhibit the coexistence of Cu⁺ and Cu⁰ in the two samples. The proportion of Cu⁰ is roughly 60% and the percentage of Cu⁺ is approximately 40% in the Cu-Mo₂C sample. As for the Cs promoted system, the proportion of Cu⁰ is (42%). This is in accordance with our previous discussion showing that there is an electronic interaction Cu-Cs-Mo in such a way that copper transfers electronic density through Cs to Mo and partially evolves towards from Cu⁰ to Cu⁺ in the Cu-Cs-Mo₂C sample.

3.1.2. XRD analysis

Fig. 4(A) shows the XRD patterns of the fresh catalysts. The XRD patterns of the spent catalysts after RWGS reaction are also shown for comparison (Fig. 4(B)). The peaks at 2θ of 34.4° , 38° , 39.4° , 52.1° , 61.5° , 69.6° and 74.6° are attributed to the diffraction features of β-Mo₂C with hexagonal closet packing (HCP) crystal structure (β-Mo₂C, JCPDS 35-0787) [43,44] while the peaks at 40.6 and 58.7 are assigned to metallic Mo (JCPDS 42-1120) [45]. It seems that Mo phase appears only in the samples containing Cs. Ryoichi Kojima et al. confirm that if Cs is added to MoO₃ before the carburization, Mo metal will be formed to partially replace β-Mo₂C [46]. As a good electron donor, Cs transferred electrons to Mo in the catalyst and stabilised Mo reduced phases (Mo^{e+} ($0 \leq e \leq 2$))) in good agreement with our XPS data. This result suggests that the Cs has a reduction effect on the molybdenum carbide catalysts. No peaks were observed for MoO₂ [34,47] or MoO₃ [48], indicating successful bulk carburization of the Mo oxides precursors. There is no obvious copper or caesium peaks for the Cu-Mo₂C, Cs-Mo₂C and Cs-Cu-Mo₂C, pointing out that copper and caesium have particle sizes smaller than the detection limit (4 nm).

The main crystallite sizes of these fresh and spent samples were calculated using the Scherrer equation as presented in Table 2. Prior to the reaction, the Mo₂C crystallite size of the commercial Mo₂C sample is 105.5 nm. To reduce the size of Mo₂C sample, a TPC procedure has been used to synthesize β-Mo₂C. The TPC procedure was fairly successful resulting in a crystallite size of 16.5 nm for the pure β-Mo₂C. Therefore, the TPC method was selected for the rest of the catalysts synthesis. The addition of Cu to the oxide precursor MoO₃ barely affect the crystallite size of the Cu-Mo₂C with just a slight increase (18.3 nm). The size of Cs-Mo₂C is 33.8 nm, two times bigger than the size of β-Mo₂C. More remarkable is the expansion of the carbide lattice when Cu and Cs are added simultaneously to oxide precursor (MoO₃) resulting in a crystallite size of 168.8 nm.

Changes in the particle size after the reaction are worth mentioning. As showcased in Table 2, the Mo₂C crystallite size in the commercial Mo₂C, β-Mo₂C, Cs-Mo₂C and Cu-Mo₂C catalysts had small particle size increments compared to their fresh counterparts. However, for Cu-Cs-Mo₂C, the most interesting observation is the absence of Mo peaks after the RWGS reaction (not even in the form of Mo oxides). Similarly, the crystallite size of Mo peak in Cs-Mo₂C decreased from 169.4 nm to 77 nm after the reaction. It is suggested that the RWGS reaction had a re-carburization effect on the catalysts. Metallic Mo has been carburized to Mo₂C and the crystallite size of Mo₂C peak in Cu-Cs-Mo₂C was also affected by the reaction atmosphere, which decreased from 168.8 nm to 32.5 nm accounting for the re-carburization effect.

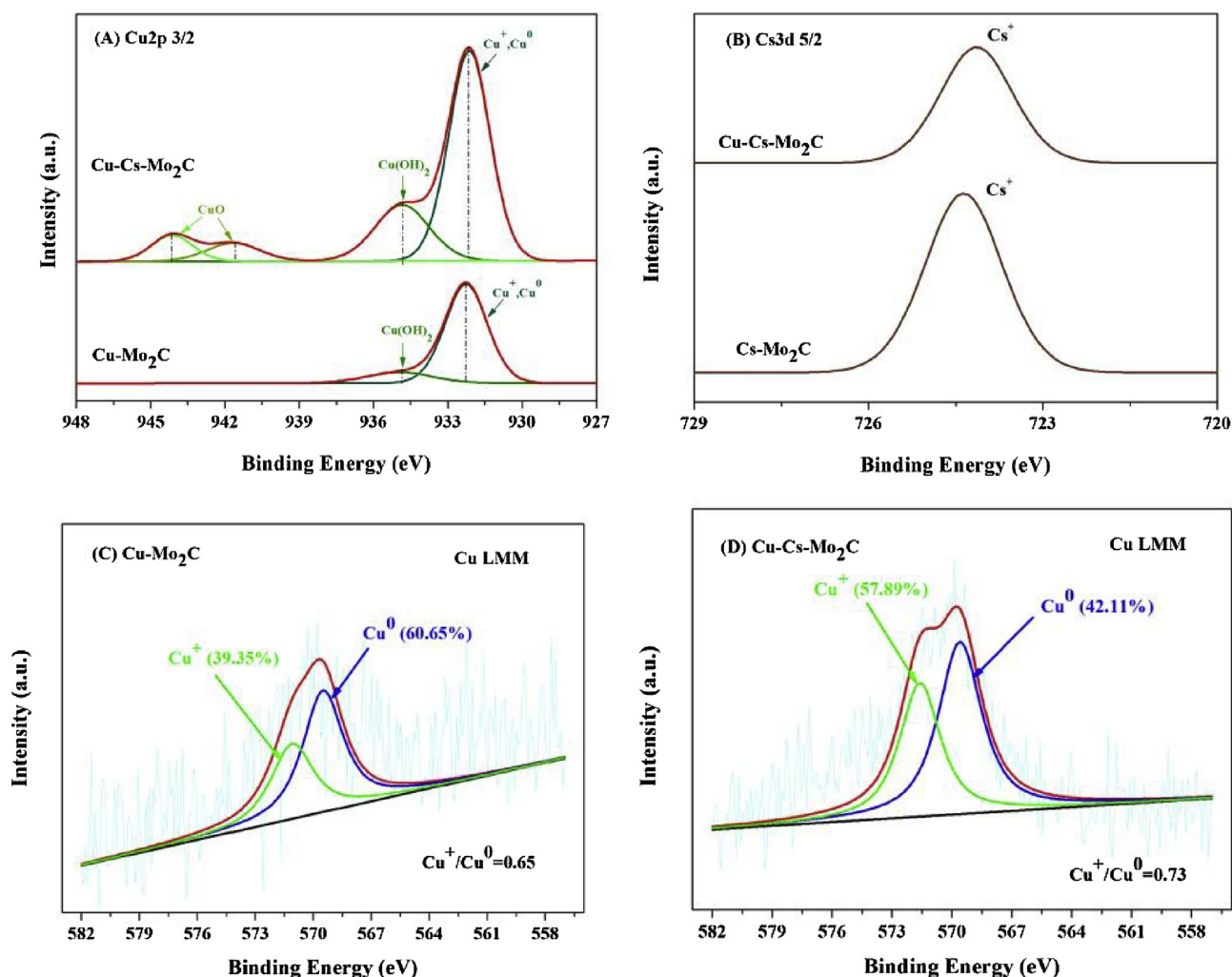


Fig. 3. (A) Cu 2p_{3/2} XPS spectra of the Cu-containing samples (B) Cs 3d_{5/2} XPS spectra of the Cs-containing samples (C) Cu LMM AES spectra of Cu-Mo₂C (D) Cu LMM AES spectra of Cu-Cs-Mo₂C.

3.1.3. Textural properties analysis

The N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms for the fresh samples are shown in Fig. 5 and the BET surface area, pore volume and pore size of these Mo₂C samples are summarized in Table 3. According to the IUPAC

standard, the isotherms of all the samples exhibit a typical type-IV curve with a pronounced capillary condensation step, characteristic of mesoporous materials [49,50].

The surface area of β-Mo₂C reached at 9 m²/g, twice the value of

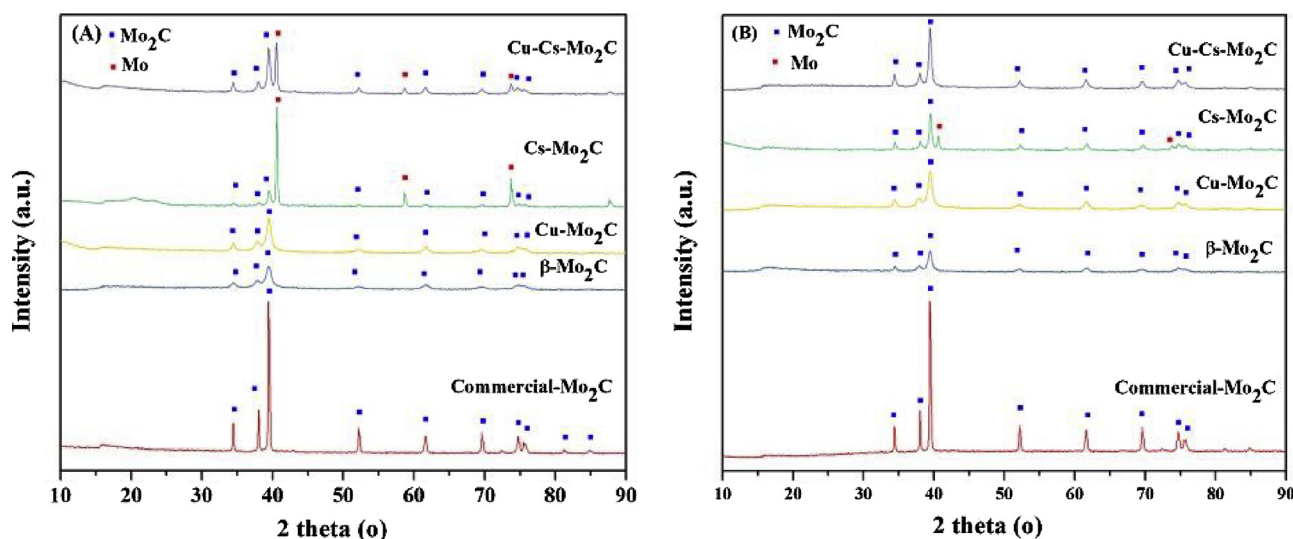


Fig. 4. X-ray diffraction patterns for the β-Mo₂C, Cu-Mo₂C, Cs-Mo₂C, Cu-Cs-Mo₂C and commercial Mo₂C. A) Fresh samples B) Post reaction samples.

Table 2
XRD crystallite size for both fresh and post reaction catalysts.

Catalyst crystallite sizes(nm) ¹	Fresh		Post Reaction	
	Mo ₂ C	Mo	Mo ₂ C	Mo
Commercial Mo ₂ C	105.5		120.6	–
β-Mo ₂ C	16.5		21.6	–
Cu-Mo ₂ C	18.3		22.2	–
Cs-Mo ₂ C	33.8	169.4	38.4	77
Cu-Cs-Mo ₂ C	168.8	92	32.5	–

¹ Estimated using Scherrer equation.

commercial Mo₂C (4 m²/g). The addition of Cu is shown to slightly increase the surface area of β-Mo₂C. The pore volume and pore size of the Cu-Mo₂C are nearly identical to β-Mo₂C. This result confirms that the surface area is not the determining factor in the RWGS reaction.

However, the data in Table 3 reveal that the surface areas, pore volumes and pore sizes all decreased when Cs was added to these samples. This phenomenon could be attributed to a partial blockage of these mesoporous of the carbide support.

3.2. Catalytic performance

3.2.1. Catalytic activity & selectivity

Fig. 6 depicts the CO₂ conversion and CO/CH₄ selectivity for the RWGS reaction over the studied catalysts. It can be seen that the commercial Mo₂C is active for RWGS reaction with the activity increasing upon rising up the temperature. All the homemade Mo₂C catalysts display considerably higher activities than the commercial one. This result could be ascribed mainly to the severe surface oxidation of the commercial Mo₂C whose surface according to the XPS analysis is dominated by Mo⁵⁺ and Mo⁶⁺ species. Indeed the XPS spectra (Figs. 1 and 2(A)) show the absence of Mo₂C species in the surface of the commercial catalyst. Compared to the commercial one, the other four catalysts exhibit higher resistance to oxidation and preserve an electronically richer surface which helps to activate CO₂.

Among the synthesised catalysts, Cu-containing materials and β-Mo₂C catalyst show very similar conversion levels. However, in terms of the selectivity, Cu-Mo₂C has higher selectivity to CO than that of β-

Table 3
Textural properties of the studied catalysts.

Catalyst	Surface Area ^a (m ² /g)	Pore Volume ^b (cm ³ /g)	Pore size ^c (nm)
Commercial Mo ₂ C	4	0.005	3.4
β-Mo ₂ C	9	0.020	3.8
Cu-Mo ₂ C	10	0.023	3.8
Cs-Mo ₂ C	7	0.015	2.4
Cu-Cs-Mo ₂ C	8	0.019	1.9

^a calculated by the BET equation.

^b Pore volumes calculated from the N₂ desorption at a relative pressure of 0.96.

^c BJH desorption average pore diameter.

Mo₂C and Cu-Cs-Mo₂C. Very likely the chemical state of Cu in our catalysts plays a key role to explain the activity/CO selectivity trends. The Cu-Mo₂C sample presents Cu²⁺ species in the XPS spectra which population increased notably on the surface of Cu-Cs-Mo₂C (Fig. 3.A). Considering that the RWGS reaction is more favoured on metallic copper than on oxidized copper [51] the marked presence of Cu²⁺ species on the multicomponent Cu-Cs-Mo₂C catalysts explains its poorer CO selectivity when compared to Cu-Mo₂C. The latter correlates fairly well with the simplified redox mechanism of the RWGS reaction mediated by Cu catalysts shown below:



In this simplified mechanism, Cu⁰ provides the active sites to dissociate CO₂ and the role of Cu⁺ is to stabilize the intermediate formate species when the formate mechanism prevails over the redox or takes place simultaneously [6]. In any case, the richer concentration of Cu²⁺ species on the Cu-Cs-Mo₂C surface accounts for its poorer CO selectivity.

The conversion of the RWGS reaction over Cs-Mo₂C is lower than the other three homemade materials, likely due to the largest block by caesium of Mo active sites. However, in terms of CO selectivity, Cs-Mo₂C is the best catalysts in the low-temperature range reaching 100% CO selectivity in the temperature window 400–500 °C, an excellent result for a potential integration with a Fischer-Tropsch reactor whose

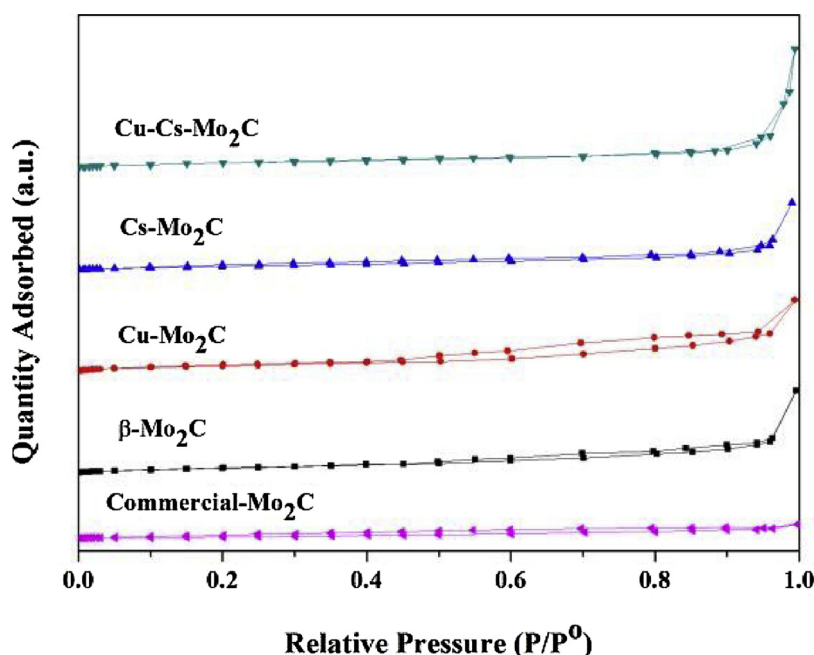


Fig. 5. N₂ adsorption-desorption of all fresh catalysts.

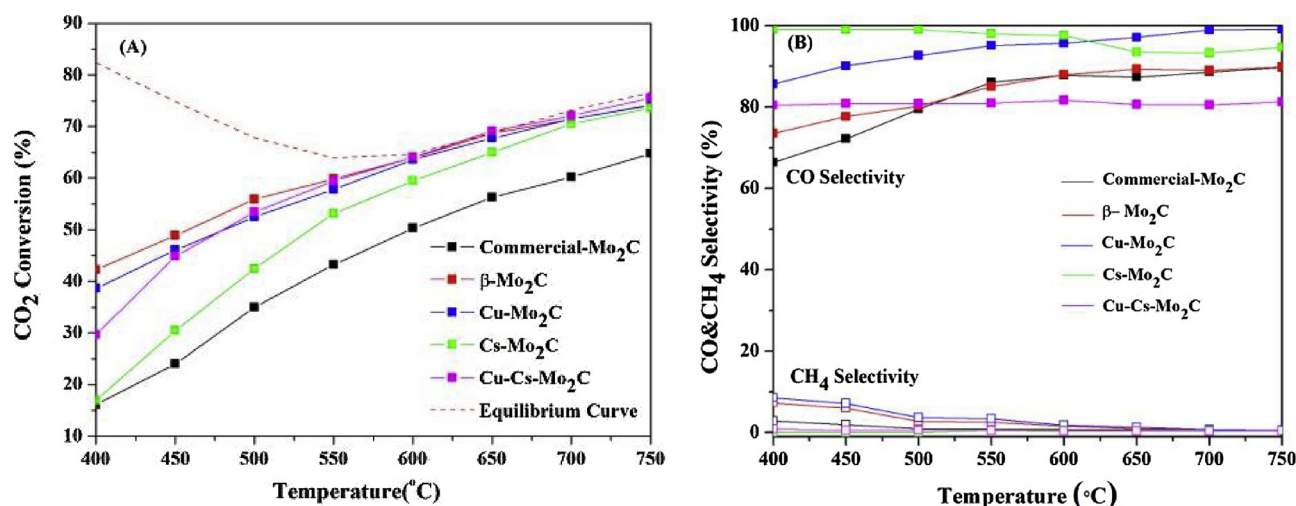


Fig. 6. (A) CO₂ conversion (B) CO and CH₄ selectivity for the β-Mo₂C, Cu-Mo₂C, Cs-Mo₂C, Cu-Cs-Mo₂C and commercial Mo₂C.

operational temperatures are lower than those of the RWGS units. The excellent selectivity of the Cs-Mo₂C could be attributed to the electronic effects of Cs on Mo₂C. As shown in XPS spectra, Mo binding energies are shifted towards lower values in Cs-Mo₂C indicating a charge transfer from Cs to Mo₂C. Porosoff et al. have demonstrated that the addition of K can enhance CO₂ adsorption (both chemisorption and physisorption) and reduce CO₂ dissociation barrier through transferring electrons to Mo₂C [23]. In our case, Cs also transfers electrons to the surface of Mo₂C leading to metallic-like Mo species in good agreement with our XPS and XRD data. Therefore, the positive charge (Cs-cation) increases the dipole-dipole interaction during the CO₂ physisorption thus increasing the physisorption energy. Meanwhile, the negatively charged molybdenum surface facilitates the activation of CO₂ (by transforming the molecule from a linear to bent configuration) and drives the selectivity towards CO. Indeed, as shown in the graph the selectivity of CO over Cs-Mo₂C is boosted and as a partial conclusion, it seems that CO₂ conversion is associated to Mo₂C phases while the enhanced selectivity maybe related to Mo metallic-like particles.

Typically, molybdenum carbide catalysts have passivation problems since carbide surfaces are very reactive. Freshly prepared Mo₂C catalysts are partially oxidised when exposed to air, so they are normally passivated by 1% O₂/He mixture to avoid violent oxidation. After the passivation treatment, the Mo₂C has an oxidised surface with a variety of Mo species with oxidation states between + IV and + VI, which is more thermodynamically stable in air [52]. However, passivation is not always beneficial to the catalysts' performance. Nagai et al. showed that passivation of molybdenum carbide with dilute O₂ reduced its activity for CO₂ hydrogenation to form CO and CH₄ [53]. Besides, Heng Shou et al. confirm that alkali metal can reduce the sensitivity of the catalyst to passivation by 1% O₂. The passivation of unpromoted Mo₂C/Al₂O₃ decreased the overall activity of the catalyst, whereas passivation of Rb promoted Mo₂C/Al₂O₃ did not significantly influence the activity [54]. In our case, Cs has been used as a promoter to maintain Mo in low valence and diminish the impact of passivation. Indeed, bearing in mind a realistic process the suppression of the passivation step involves substantial operating cost savings. For the equilibrium curve, both methanation and RWGS reaction have been considered during the simulation process. The thermodynamic equilibrium curves provided in Fig. 6 mirror the natural competition methanation/RWGS. In the low-temperature range, high CO₂ conversion could be achieved via methanation. At the high-temperature range, the RWGS becomes the dominant process and the equilibrium CO₂ conversion levels increase upon incrementing the temperature. Since our catalysts are very selective towards RWGS the experimental CO₂ conversion values observed along the whole studied temperature range reflect mainly the

effect of the reverse shift process; in other words, the CO₂ conversion always increases with temperature.

Overall, all the studied catalysts present an excellent activity/selectivity balance and certainly outperform the behaviour of a commercial Mo₂C. Also, it must be highlighted that the samples do not require any pre-treatment prior to the reaction thus avoiding extra steps (and cost) in a potential implementation of these catalysts in a real CO₂ conversion unit. Among the studied series Cu-Mo₂C resulted to be the most active material but in terms of selectivity, Cs-Mo₂C is the most interesting system especially when an integrated process with a syngas upgrading unit is considered. Therefore this catalyst was selected for further catalytic tests.

3.2.2. Influence of H₂:CO₂ ratio

Considering the cost of hydrogen it would be interesting to develop a RWGS catalyst able to run effectively at relatively low H₂:CO₂ ratios [55]. In this sense, we have studied the influence of this parameter on the RWGS reaction performance conserving the same WHSV (12,000 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹). As shown in Fig. 7(A), the CO₂ conversion of the RWGS reaction over Cs-Mo₂C is notably affected by the hydrogen concentration in the reactor inlet. It seems clear that CO₂ conversion is favoured at high H₂:CO₂ ratios. According to the reaction stoichiometry, RWGS reaction should be successfully accomplished for H₂:CO₂ ratio of 1.0. The fact that higher hydrogen concentrations favour the process could be related to adsorptions capacity and hydrogen coverage on catalysts surface. The preferential adsorption of CO₂ on the surface could result in a CO₂-rich surface for hydrogen-poor reaction mixtures and therefore fewer chances for the reactants to interact. This situation is alleviated when the partial pressure of hydrogen is increased. In fact, the observed trend regarding the influence of the H₂:CO₂ also reflects the thermodynamics of the reaction. In terms of CO selectivity (Fig. 7(B)), it can be observed that for these three H₂:CO₂ ratios the CO selectivity remained constant at 100% at a temperature of 400 °C and 450 °C. However, the selectivity of CO decreased with temperature, indicating that CO selectivity over Cs-Mo₂C is favoured at low temperatures – again pointing its suitability to couple the RWGS unit with a lower temperature reactor. It is interesting to note that in the high-temperature range from 600 °C onwards the CO selectivity is enhanced for H₂:CO₂ ratio 1:1.

3.2.3. Stability study

Long-term runs are essential for any realistic application and in particular for CO₂ conversion units where a continuous CO₂ effluent has to be treated. In this sense, the Cs-Mo₂C catalyst was subjected to a long-term stability run of about 50 h and its performance compared to that of the β-Mo₂C. As shown in Fig. 6, Cs-Mo₂C exhibits a high CO

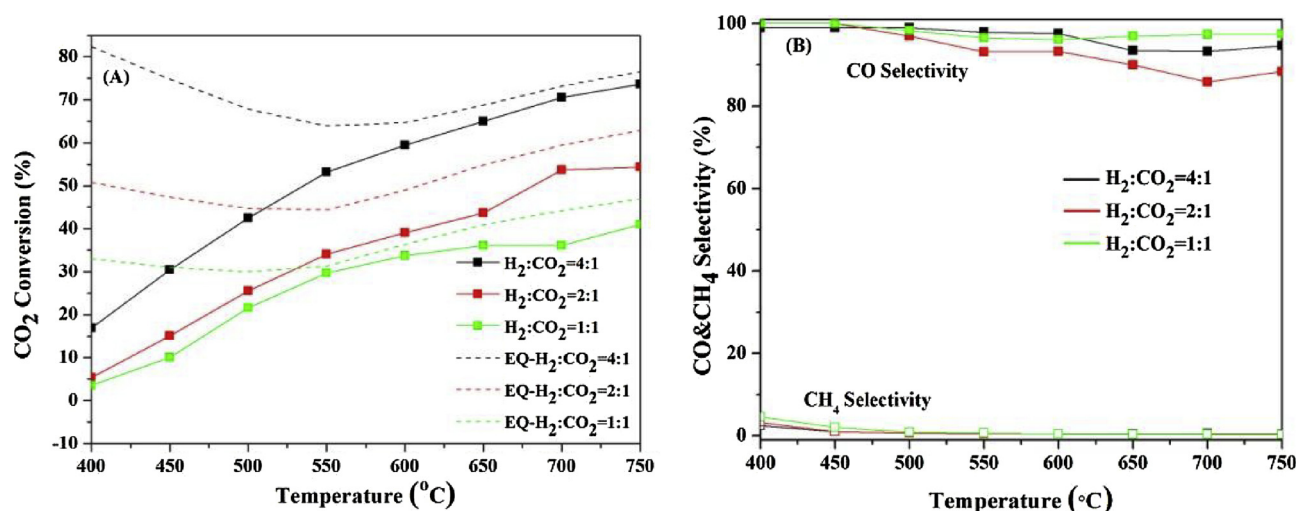


Fig. 7. CO₂ conversion (A) and CO&CH₄ selectivity (B) for Cs-Mo₂C at H₂:CO₂ ratio of 4:1, 2:1, 1:1.

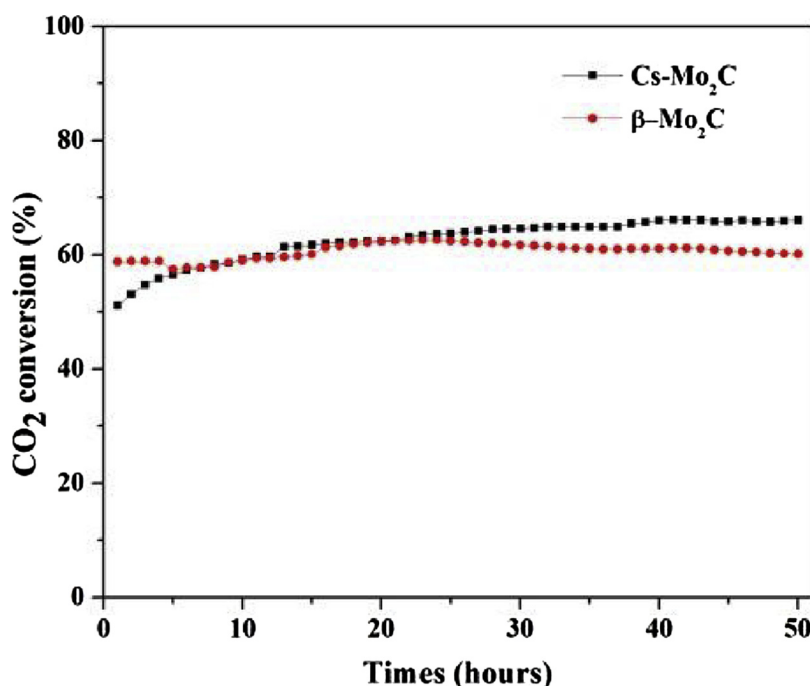


Fig. 8. Stability test at 550 °C, WHSV of 12,000 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹ with a H₂:CO₂ ratio of 4:1 for Cs-Mo₂C and β-Mo₂C.

selectivity and a relatively high CO₂ conversion at 550 °C. Thus, the condition of WHSV = 12,000 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹ with a H₂:CO₂ ratio of 4:1 at 550 °C was chosen for this test which results are depicted in Fig. 8.

In general terms, both catalysts exhibit fairly stable performance after 50 h of continuous operation. For the β-Mo₂C, CO₂ conversion remains approximately constant at 60%. On the other hand, the Cs-Mo₂C shows a better catalytic activity after the 5 h stability test. The conversion of RWGS reaction over Cs-Mo₂C increased from 54.8% to 60% after 12 h test and came up to 66% after 50 h test. This in-situ activation is just a confirmation of the re-carburization process for Cs-Mo₂C during the RWGS in good agreement with our XRD observations. As shown in Fig. 4(B), Mo metal peaks of Cs-Mo₂C catalyst are weaker than those of the fresh catalyst. The crystallite size of Mo peak in Cs-Mo₂C decreased from 169.4 nm to 77 nm after the reaction (Table 2), indicating that metallic Mo has been carburized to Mo₂C. In addition to the re-carburisation, the formation of smaller Mo clusters (electronically rich due to the electron donation from Cs) also accounts for this apparent in-situ activation effect. Along with the excellent stability the

Cs-doped catalysts maintained 98% of selectivity towards CO a higher selectivity outcome compared to that of the unpromoted β-Mo₂C. In other words, the Cs-Mo₂C catalyst is a promising system for chemical CO₂ recycling in the gas phase via RWGS able to perform steadily for long-term runs.

4. Conclusion

This work reflects the potential of Mo₂C based catalysts for chemical CO₂ recycling via RWGS. The addition of promoters such as Cs and Cu have a remarkable positive impact on the catalytic performance – enhanced activity/selectivity. The surface chemistry of the promoted catalysts seems to play a major role to account for the beneficial effect of the promoters. The presence of Cu⁺ and Cu⁰ species in the Cu-Mo₂C favours the RWGS reaction. As for the Cs promoted material, the electropositive character of Cs facilitates the electronic transfer from Cs to Mo and leads to an electronically rich surface which favours the selectivity towards CO. Indeed, the Cs-promoted catalyst reaches 100%

CO selectivity in the low-temperature range which makes this catalyst a promising system for the integration of RWGS and syngas gas upgrading unit which typically runs at lower temperatures than the shift reactor.

Our work also showcases the fact that relatively high H_2 :CO ratios are needed to achieve higher CO_2 conversions in the RWGS reaction under the studied conditions. Overall, the CO_2 conversion decreases when the H_2 :CO ratio goes from 4 to 1 with no remarkable effects on the selectivity. As for the catalysts' stability, our long-term run reveals that both the β - Mo_2C and the Cs- Mo_2C are very robust catalysts exhibiting excellent stability with no apparent deactivation. Interestingly, Cs- Mo_2C is in-situ activated during RWGS due to a re-carburization process along with the electronic transfer from Cs to Mo favoured under the reaction conditions. Also, the catalysts developed in this work do not require any kind of pre-treatment prior to the reaction resulting advantageous for the potential implementation of these catalysts in a real CO_2 conversion unit. Overall, this work represents an approach towards the design of efficient promoted- Mo_2C catalysts for the RWGS with potential applications in gas phase CO_2 upgrading units.

Acknowledgements

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